

PRECISION MEASUREMENT OF THE HIGGS BOSON MASS AND SEARCH FOR
DI-LEPTON MASS RESONANCES IN $H \rightarrow 4\ell$ DECAYS USING THE CMS DETECTOR AT
THE LHC

By

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I dedicate this to Jacob Myhre.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The universe, while overwhelmingly vast, is comprised of a curiously small number of elementary particles. These particles and their strong, weak, and electromagnetic interactions with each other are accurately described by the Standard Model (SM). A major shortcoming of the SM was its inability to predict the masses of these particles.

This dissertation presents a precision measurement of the Higgs boson mass and using LHC proton-proton collision data from Run 2 data set from

The SM was not able to predict the masses of these particles until 1964 when the Brout-Englert-Higgs mechanism suggested that It wasn't until 1964 that the Brout-Englert-Higgs mechanism gave a self-consistent way to : by breaking the electroweak gauge symmetry of the vacuum would give rise to non-zero masses of the weak gauge bosons. This would yield a secondary effect too: there should exist a fundamental scalar boson which is the quantum of the so-called “Higgs field”. On July 4th, 2012, this Higgs boson was discovered.

At first glance, the universe appears to be an overwhelmingly vast and complicated place. However upon closer inspection, it is comprised of only a few different kinds of fundamental particles. Particle physics has given rise to the Standard Model (SM) which mathematically describes these constituents and their interactions with each other.

The Standard Model (SM) is an impressively accurate mathematical theory which describes the fundamental particles of the universe and the rules for their possible interactions. Problematically though, the SM predicts that all particles are massless.

Get to the Higgs boson.

Why is it important? Knowing the mass of the Higgs boson

CHAPTER 2

THE CMS DETECTOR



Figure 2-1. Life-size poster of the CMS detector, taken during CERN Open Days 2019 in the SX5 warehouse where parts of CMS were assembled.

Weighing in at 14,000 tonnes, standing 5 stories tall (15 m), and reaching 29 m long, the Compact Muon Solenoid (CMS) experiment is one of two general-purpose particle detectors at the LHC (Fig. 2-1). CMS is situated approximately 100 m under the earth at the fifth collision point (Point 5) along the LHC (Fig. 2-2). In 2012, both CMS and its competing experiment, ATLAS, independently discovered the Higgs boson.

As discussed in Section (TODO: REF), the LHC collides bunches of protons every 25 ns to produce thousands of new particles which then travel away from the interaction point. CMS is built around the interaction point in a series of cylindrical subdetectors for nearly hermetic coverage so that most of the particles must travel through CMS. The detector sports a solenoid, after which CMS was named, which generates a 3.8 T uniform magnetic field that points longitudinally down the central axis of CMS. This strong magnetic field applies a Lorentz force on the outgoing charged particles, causing them to follow helical, momentum-dependent trajectories. These curved tracks are then better separated from one another which assists in particle identification. Neutral particles experience no Lorentz force and thus travel in straight lines.

The subdetectors measure the properties of the outgoing particles and carefully filter them out in a clever way (Fig. 2-3). Particles interact with the subdetectors, leaving so called “hits” where

they passed through. Hits are reconstructed into tracks. From the track curvature, deduce charge and momentum of the particles. Depending on which subdetector (or combination of subdetectors) was hit by the outgoing particles, the type of particle can be deduced. A few example particles

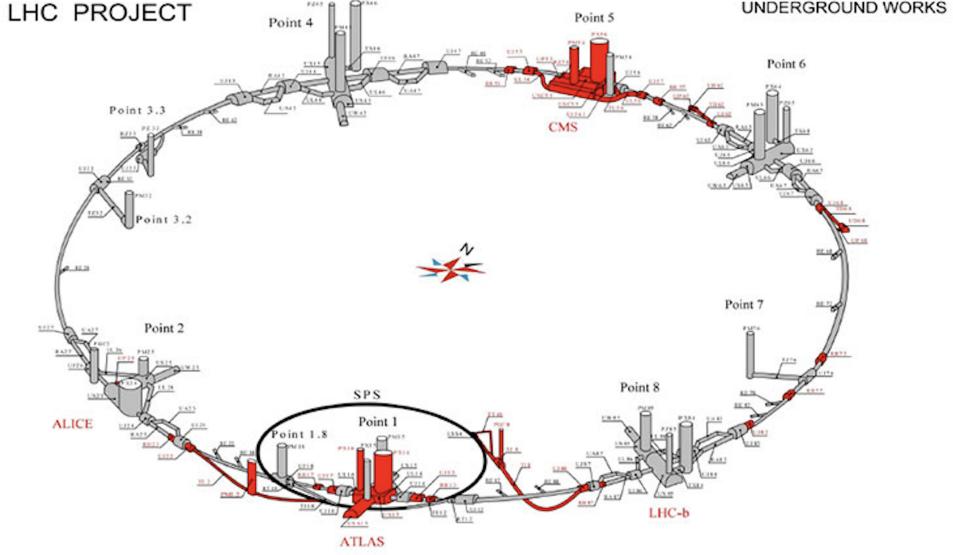


Figure 2-2. Points 1 through 8 along the LHC. Collisions occur at Points 1 (ATLAS), 2 (ALICE), 5 (CMS), and 8 (LHCb), whereas the remaining points are used for LHC beam maintenance and testing.

and their associated tracks are shown in Fig. 2-4.

Before discussing each subdetector in the following sections, it is useful to define the coordinate system used in CMS: a typical, right-handed, three-dimensional Cartesian coordinate system (x, y, z) is used, whose center $(0, 0, 0)$ is placed at the nominal pp collision point within CMS. The x -axis points towards the center of the LHC, the y -axis points vertically upward, and the z -axis points westward towards the Jura mountains, tangential to the beam direction. Since CMS covers almost the entire spherical 4π steradians around the interaction point, it is convenient to use spherical coordinates (r, ϕ, θ) , in which r measures the radial distance in the x - y plane, ϕ measures the azimuthal angle in the x - y plane as measured from the x -axis, and θ measures the polar angle as measured from the z -axis. When dealing with ultra-relativistic particles like those produced at the LHC, special relativistic effects like length contraction must be taken into account and so the coordinate θ becomes frame-dependent. It is thus helpful to convert θ to the Lorentz-invariant

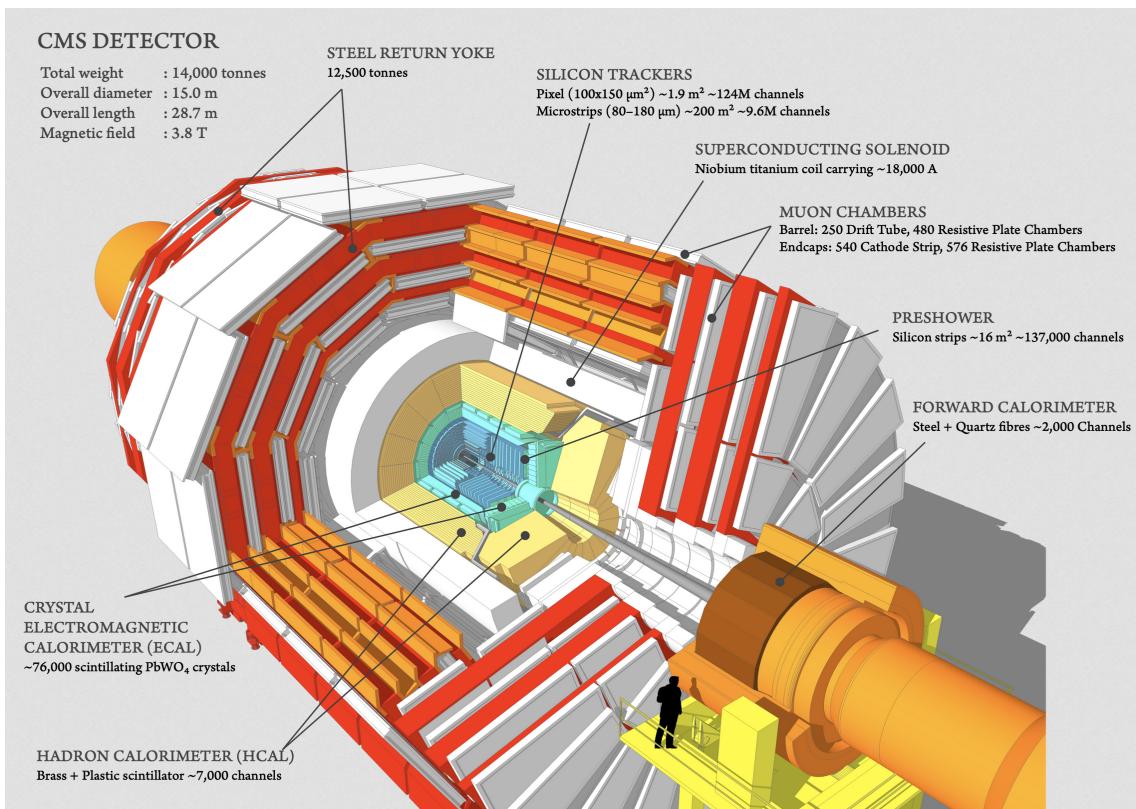


Figure 2-3. Cut out of the CMS detector showing its various subdetector components.

quantity called pseudorapidity (η), which is defined as:

$$\eta = -\ln(\tan(\theta/2))$$

2.1 The Silicon Tracker

At the heart of CMS is one of the world’s largest silicon detectors: the silicon tracker. The main goal of the silicon tracker is not to capture outgoing particles but to very precisely measure the hits from the charged particles as they pass through it. The tracker also assists in vertex identification, differentiating between primary and secondary vertices, the latter of which often comes from B meson decays. When multiple pp collisions occur within the same BX (pile up), the tracker distinguishes between proton collisions with a resolution of about $100 \mu\text{m}$ longitudinally and $50 \mu\text{m}$ transverse to the beam pipe. This is crucial to resolve which outgoing particles came from which pp vertex.

The tracker consists of two types of pure silicon detectors: the pixel detector and the strip detector, each of which is described in detail below.

2.1.1 The Pixel Detector

The innermost part of the silicon tracker is the pixel detector, which is the closest subdetector to the interaction point. The pixel detector is composed of 66 million silicon “pixels”, as shown in Fig. 2-5 (Left, pink). A single pixel is $100 \mu\text{m} \times 150 \mu\text{m}$ and, collectively, they cover a sensitive area of 1.9 m^2 . Because it sits only 8 cm away from the beam pipe, the pixel detector receives the highest particle flux than any other subdetector: around 10 million particles per cm^2 per second.

The pixel detector is made of three cylindrical layers and two endcaps that surround the beam pipe. In total, the pixel detector has around 6,000 connections (channels) per cm^2 .

After the LHC Run 1 was completed, the accelerator received luminosity upgrades during the 2013-2014 long shutdown period. To handle these higher luminosities, the pixel detector was replaced by the CMS Phase-1 pixel detector during the LHC technical stop in 2016-2017. The upgrades outfitted the detector with four barrel layers and three endcap disks per side, which allowed

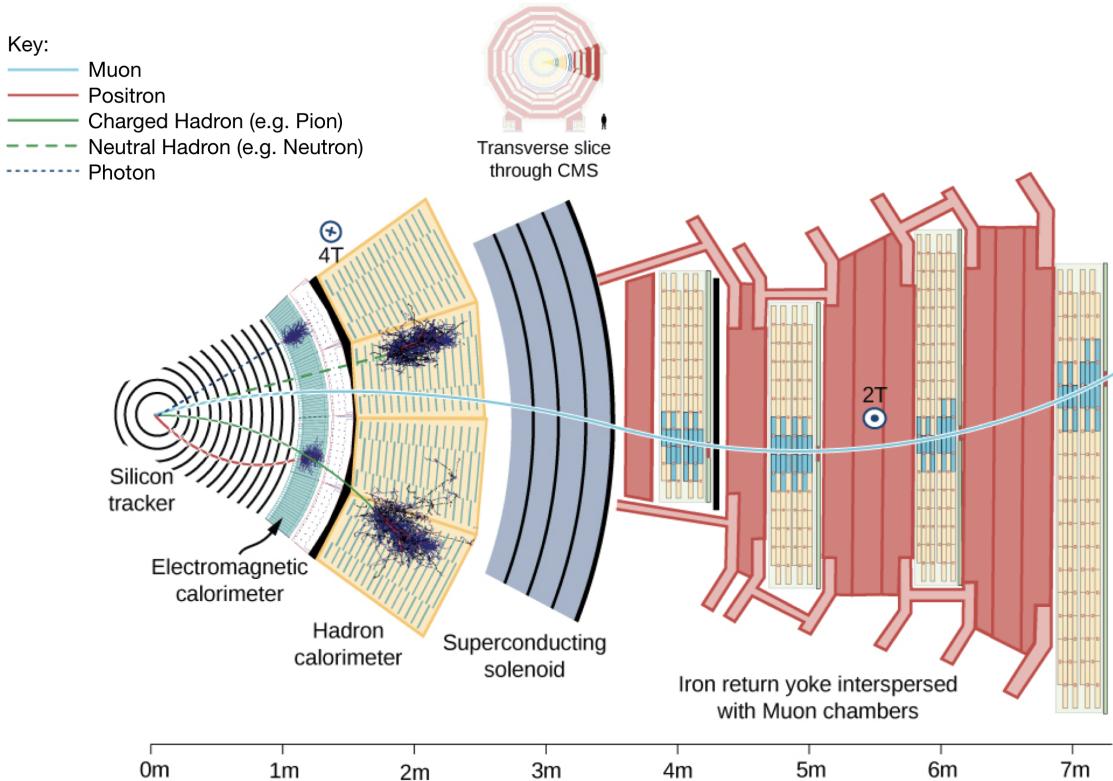


Figure 2-4. A transverse view of CMS showing the “filtration process” as different particles pass through different subdetectors. A positron (solid red line) curves due to the presence of the magnetic field and gets stopped in the ECAL, creating an EM shower. A photon (blue dashed line) does not get detected at all by the Silicon Tracker, since it has no electric charge. It continues through to the ECAL and makes a shower here, like the positron. Charged hadrons (solid green line) will show curved tracks from the Silicon Tracker, may leave some trace in the ECAL, but primarily get stopped by the HCAL creating hadronic showers. Neutral hadrons (dashed green line) do not interact with the tracker, and only undergo EM showers a little in the ECAL, but show most energy deposits in the HCAL. Muons (solid blue line) are detected by the Silicon Tracker and then mostly pass through the other subdetectors without interacting until they finally reach the Muon System. Using the Lorentz force law and knowing which direction the magnetic field is pointing, one can deduce the sign of the charge of the particle. Based on the radius of curvature from the trajectory, one can then calculate the momentum and energy of the particle.

for particle detection up to $|\eta| < 2.5$. The overall mass of the pixel detector decreased and granted the detector with better tracking capability.

2.1.2 The Strip Detector

The outer part of the silicon tracker is called the strip detector, which has 10 million detector strips spread across 10 cylindrical layers. The first 4 layers belong to the tracker inner barrel (TIB) and the remaining 6 layers belong to the tracker outer barrel (TOB), Fig. 2-5 (Left, green and blue, respectively). Both the TIB and TOB have two endcaps associated with them, the TID and TEC, respectively. Accounting for all of its components, the strip detector is sensitive to 200 m^2 . Fig. 2-6 gives a clearly-labelled transverse illustration of the pixel and strip detectors.

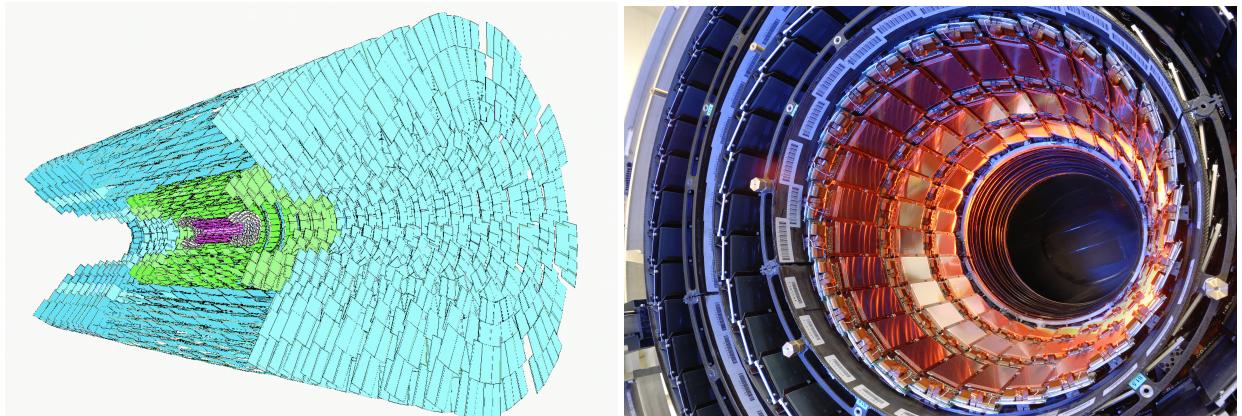


Figure 2-5. (Left) A simulation of the silicon tracker, showing the 3 cylindrical layers of the pixel detector (pink), 4 layers of the TIB (green), and the 6 layers of the TOB (blue) of the strip detector. The endcap components are also shown. (Right) A picture of the real silicon tracker at the center of CMS.

2.2 Background Estimation

Processes which pass the signal event selection (REF EVENT SELECTION) but are not actually the signal process of interest (HZZ4L) are called background processes. These background events spoil the purity of the signal events and introduce further uncertainty into the final Higgs boson mass measurement. Therefore, it is a priority to properly model and reduce the number of background events.

The two types of background processes present in the HZZ4L analysis are:

- irreducible background

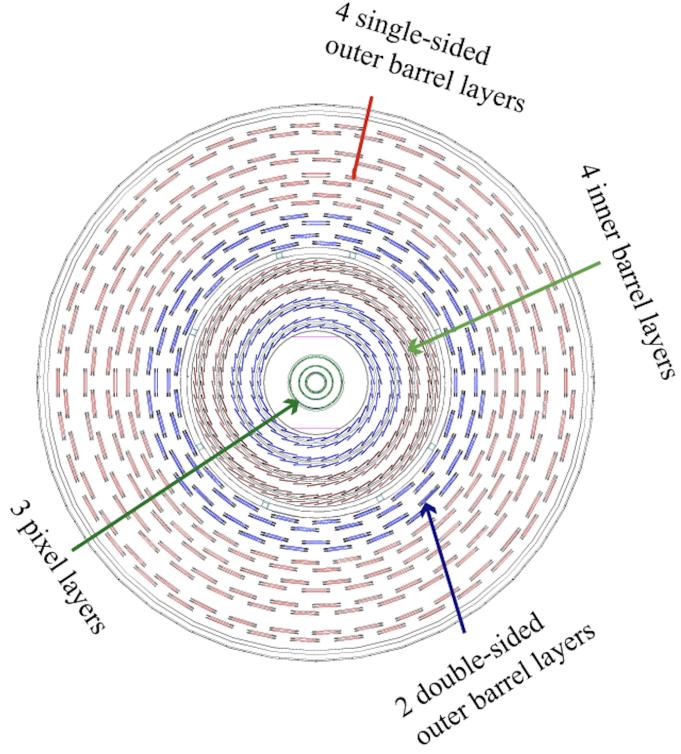


Figure 2-6. A transverse view of the silicon pixel and strip detectors, explicitly labelling the different layers involved.

- reducible background

and will be explained in full detail in the subsequent sections.

2.2.1 Irreducible Background

The first kind of background process is that which produces two Z bosons which then decay into four prompt leptons. These four leptons typically get reconstructed as leptons which pass tight selection. Therefore, the event is tagged (incorrectly) as a 4-lepton signal event. Since these processes cannot be distinguished from the signal process and cannot be reduced, they are called irreducible backgrounds. The two irreducible backgrounds for the HZZ4L analysis are:

1. ggTOZZ (gluon-gluon fusion)
2. qqbarTOZZ (quark-antiquark annihilation)

2.2.2 Reducible Background

Besides irreducible backgrounds, there are other background processes that produce non-prompt leptons which are erroneously reconstructed as passing tight selection, due to detector imperfections. These leptons should have been rejected since they come from a non-signal process, the imperfect lepton reconstruction, these leptons appear to be signal leptons. Using careful event selection methods and more efficient detectors, these background processes can be reduced, hence the term reducible backgrounds. Reducible backgrounds include:

1. Z+jets
2. ttbar
3. WZ
4. qqbarTOZZ, ggTOZZ

Since reducible backgrounds are not eliminated entirely within the signal region, they must be modelled and estimated.

More concretely, reducible backgrounds have three main sources:

1. misidentifying light-flavor hadrons (e.g., PIONS) as leptons,
2. heavy-flavor hadrons which decay mid-flight into leptons,
3. and asymmetric photon conversions into electrons.

CHAPTER 3 SUMMARY

words.